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ABSTRACT

Cited in this annotated bibliography are (1) research studies about discipline, compliance, and cooperation in homes, schools, and child care settings; and (2) practical materials about effective discipline; classroom management techniques for teachers, day care workers, and school administrators; and home management techniques for parents. Some citations with self-explanatory titles do not include annotations. (RH)

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An Annotated Bibliography

DISCIPLINE

COOPERATION & COMPLIANCE

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DISCIPLINE, COOPERATION, AND COMPLIANCE: AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

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INTRODUCTION

Engaging children to cooperate (1) in household routines, (2) in classroom learning experiences, and (3) with social rules about toileting, table manners, and polite social transactions with others are among the most salient and special tasks for parents and teachers. All small children must be socialized to behave with peers and adults in ways that promote societal well-being. For this socialization to occur, children must behave compliantly in accordance with suggestions, explanations, requests, and rules of their families and teachers. Discipline styles and techniques of parents and caregivers are often predicated on different theoretical conceptions of which discipline modes will result in increased or more probable child compliance. Research by Baumrind and others has been dedicated to discerning the outcomes in child compliance and cooperation that are more likely to occur if adults use certain kinds of discipline styles rather than others.

In classrooms, the importance of child cooperation for classroom management cannot be overemphasized. It is nearly impossible for all but gifted or specially trained teachers to help a child learn if that child lacks skills to cooperate with a teaching adult. Trying to motivate children to learn through the use of punitive or shaming classroom discipline techniques often proves counterproductive for children's learning. Thus, it is important that teachers learn classroom discipline strategies that promote positive learning attitudes and peaceful, harmonious classroom interaction patterns.

The present annotated bibliography contains two sections. The first section references research on discipline, compliance, and cooperation in homes, schools, and child care settings. The second section provides applied references useful for teachers, child care workers, school administrators, and parents to enhance knowledge about dis-cipline and classroom-home management techniques that work.

Some references have fairly self-explanatory titles and are not annotated.

References have been chosen particularly with a focus on young children of both preschool and elementary age. Not all approaches to discipline that are referenced are necessarily endorsed by the authors.

Adult discipline techniques vary widely in order to gain children's cooperation with home and classroom rules, noise level, needs of others, caregiver requests, respect for others' space and property, and expectancies for appropriate, on-task behaviors. Discipline techniques vary from more di-rective (or even harsh) to more democratic procedures responsive to the child's dignity, stage of developmental understanding, and capacity and attentional states. Com-pliance may involve an array of child behaviors ranging all the way from sullen acceptance of an adult order or threat to cooperation based on internalization of social requirements in order to maximize the child's "own and others' peaceful and harmonious social interactions" (Honig, 1985, p. 50).

SECTION 1: RESEARCH REPORTS

Ainsworth, M.D.S., Bell, M.V., & Stayton, D.J. (1971). Individual differences in strange-situation behavior of one-year-olds. In H.R. Schaffer (Ed.), The origin of human social relations. London: Academic Press.

This study confirms the critical importance of secure attachment for the development of compliance. Secure attach-ment is fostered by a positively responsive parent who is aware of and accurately interprets infant distress signals, who responds to them promptly and effectively to comfort the baby, and who has tender and gentle holding and feeding patterns.

Altman, K. (1971). Effects of cooperative response acquisition of social behavior during free play. Journal of Experimental Psychology, 12, 387-395.

Consistent reinforcement increases cooperative responses while simultaneously decreasing aggressive behaviors.

Andrews, D., & Krantz, M. (1982). The effects of reinforced cooperative experience on friendship patterns of preschool children. Journal of Genetic Psychology, 140, 197-205.

Reinforcing cooperative experiences increases the social interactions of previously non-interactive 4-year-old children.

Arap-Maritim, E.K. (1984). Relation of parental strictness to competitive and

cooperative attitudes of primary school children. Psychological Reports, 54, 864-866.

Kenyan boys are found to be more cooperative than girls as a result of sex role socialization practices.

Azrin, N.H., & Lindsley, O.R. (1967). The reinforcement of cooperation between children. In S.W. Bijou & D.M. Baer (Eds.), Child development: Readings in experimenta analysis. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.

In an S-R paradigm, pairs of children were reinforced for cooperating in a stylus-in-the-hole game. Their rate of cooperative response increased significantly as a function of the operant conditioning technique used.

Baumrind, D. (1977). Some thoughts about child rearing. In S. Cohen & T.J. Chomsky (Eds.), Child development: Contemporary perspectives. Itasca, IL: F.E. Peacock.

Research on child rearing in families shows that both authoritarian control and permissive noncontrol shield the child from opportunities for social interactions that would enhance cooperation. Authoritative control, with firm rules and loving parental involvement, helps children remain autonomous and yet achieve responsible conformity with group standards.

Beckwith, L. (1972). Relationships between infants' social behavior and their mothers' behavior. Child Development, 43(2), 397-411.

When the mother was critical, suppressive, and interfering, infants from 8 to 11 months of

age played less frequently and responsively with her.

Berndt, T.J. (1983). Social cognition, social behavior, and children's friendships. In E.T. Higgins, D.N. Rubel, & W.W. Hartup (Eds.), Social cognition and social development. Cambridge, MA.: Cambridge University Press.

Blaney, N.T., Stephan, C., Rosenfield, D., Aronson, E., & Sikes, J. (1977). Interdependence in the classroom: A field study. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 69, 121-128.

Authors developed the "jigsaw classroom" technique, in which children are given different pieces of information about a lesson. Each child must learn from other children as well as teach other children to master the material. Evaluation revealed that children in the jigsaw classrooms showed greater liking for each other, increased friendliness, and increased self-esteem when compared with children in traditional classrooms.

Borke, H. (1971). Interpersonal perception of young children: Egocentrism or empathy. Developmental Psychology, 5, 236-269.

Borke, H. (1971). The development of empathy in Chinese and American children between three and six years of age: A cross-cultural study. Developmental Psychology, 9, 102-108.

When asked how a character in a story felt, young children were able to choose an

appropriate drawing of a face although they could not label the emotion correctly. The author suggests that Piagetian egocentrism is not entirely charac-teristic of preoperational children, who can be expected to empathize and cooperate with others to a greater degree than Piagetian theory would predict.

Cameron, A. (1985, July) Noncompliance and learning delay in high-risk preschool children. Paper presented at the eighth biennial meeting of the International Society for the Study of Behavioral Development, Tours, France.

Preschool children considered at high risk for school failure, when subjected to an intensive tutorial-structured teaching program, showed slower progress and significantly higher noncompliance and inattentiveness than low-risk preschoolers. Motivational factors may be very significant in outcomes of preschool enrichment efforts.

Chafel, J.S. (1984). Social comparisons by young children in classroom contexts. Early Child Development and Care, 14, 109-124.

Naturalistic observation of preschoolers at play revealed that even 3- and 4-year-olds can use social comparisons to contrast their rules about social interactions in order to advance their cooperative play.

Chapman, M., & Zahn-Waxler, C. (1982). Young children's compliance and noncompliance to parental discipline in a natural setting. International Journal of Behavioral Development, 5, 81-94.

Verbal prohibition and love withdrawal produce short-term compliance, but for the long-term achievement of self-control and self-regulation, reasoning is the most powerful tech-nique.

Clarke-Stewart, K.A., VanderStoep, L.P., & Killian, G.A. (1979). Analysis and replication of mother-child relations at two years of age. Child Development, 55, 1290-1298.

Mother-child pairs were assigned to one of four conditions: ignoring training, ignoring plus verbal rationale, modeling, or control. Children in the rationale and rationale plus modeling conditions were more compliant and acted less inappropriately than children in either of the other two conditions, and their mothers reported greater satisfaction than mothers in the ignoring condition.

Denbo, M.H., Sweitzer, M., & Lauritzen, P. (1985). An evaluation of group parent education: Behavioral, PET, and Adlerian programs. Review of Educational Research, 55(2), 155-200.

This paper presents an evaluation of 48 investigations on three parent education programs--behavioral, PET, and Adlerian. Results indicate that certain changes in parental attitudes and positive child behavior are evident as a result of different educational approaches.

Devitis, J., (1984). Cooperation and social equity in child-hood: Adlerian and Piagetian lessons. Journal of Research and Development in Education, 17, 21-25.

Theoretical interpretations of the child's growing ability to act cooperatively are offered. Reciprocity of thought and symbolic contemplation of consequences of actions in middle childhood are considered necessary for cooperation.

Devoe, M.W., & Sherman, T.M. (1978). A microtechnology for teaching prosocial behavior to children. Child Study Journal, 8(2), 83-91.

Third graders were randomly assigned to experimental or comparison groups. The experimental group was taught to share using a microtechnology procedure involving (1) videotaping children in a sharing situation, (2) showing a videotaped model, (3) pointing out the situation, (4) showing the child his/her videotaped performance with confrontation, (5) discussing sharing with the child, and (6) demonstrating the sharing behavior. Sharing increased immediately following the training sessions and also one week later.

Easterbrooks, M.A., & Emde, R.N. (1985, April). When Mommy and Daddy say no: A longitudinal study of toddler compliance. Paper presented at the biennial meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, Toronto.

In a laboratory playroom, parents' use of verbal prohibiting strategies increased from 12 to 18 months; the use of anger also increased; physical control attempts declined. Parental warmth assessed at 24 months was positively related to child compliance for mothers but not for fathers.

Eisenberg-Berg, N., & Neal, C. (1979). Children's moral reasoning about their own spontaneous prosocial behavior. Developmental Psychology, 15(2), 228-229.

No sex or age differences were found for 48- to 63-month-old preschoolers observed and questioned by a familiar experimenter about their spontaneous helping, sharing, or comforting behaviors over a 12-week period. The children justified their behaviors primarily with references to others' needs and pragmatic considerations and used little punishment or authority-oriented, approval-oriented, or hedonistic reasoning.

Emery, R. (1982). Interparental conflict and the children of discord and divorce. Psychological Bulletin, 92(2), 310-330.

Parental inconsistency and disagreements about discipline in child rearing were related to subsequent divorce and to child discipline problems in school.

Erickson, M.F., & Crichton, L. (1981, April). Antecedents of compliance in two-year-olds from a high-risk sample. Paper presented at the biennial meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, Boston.

In a group of high-risk infants, the quality and stability of secure infant-mother attachment at 6 months proved to be a significant predictor of toddler compliance at 2 years.

Friedrich, L.K., & Stein, A.H. (1973). Aggressive and prosocial television programs

and the natural behavior of preschool children. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 38(4).

In a 9-week nursery session, 93 children were exposed to either aggressive cartoons, neutral films, or Mr. Rogers' Neighborhood. Children who saw the prosocial programs daily showed higher post-film levels of task persistence, rule obedience, and tolerance of delay in gratification. Low socioeconomic status children, after prosocial programming, demonstrated more cooperative play, nurturance, and verbali-zation of feelings.

Grusec, J., & Kuczynski, L. (1980). Direction of effect in socialization: A comparison of the parent's versus the child's behavior as determinants of disciplinary techniques. Developmental Psychology, 16(1), 1-9.

Mothers of children 4 to 5 and 7 to 8 years described the discipline they would use with their children in situations involving 12 different misdemeanors. Mothers frequently stated they would use multiple techniques in dealing with a misdemeanor, often power assertion in combination with reasoning.

Haskins, R. (1985). Public school aggression among children with varying day care experience. Child Development, 56, 689-703.

Multivariate analyses were conducted for a group of children in their early public school years. Children who had attended a cognitively oriented day care program, beginning in infancy, were more aggressive than other children in day care.

Hay, D.F., & Rheingold, H.L. (1983). The early appearance of some valued social behaviors. In D.L. Bridgeman (Ed.), The nature of prosocial development: Interdisciplinary theories and strategies. New York: Academic Press.

With either their mother or father, children 18-, 24-, and 30-months-old were observed for their degree of compliance in several housekeeping tasks. On the average, parents were assisted by the 18-month-olds, 24-month-olds, and 30-month-olds on 63%, 78%, and 89% of the tasks, respectively.

Hess, P.D., & McDevitt, T.M. (1984). Some cognitive consequences of maternal intervention techniques: A longitudinal study. Child Development, 55(6), 17-30.

Mothers' teaching and disciplining techniques of 4-year-old children showed that direct control techniques led to poorer school performance at later ages, especially for girls.

Hess, R.D., & Shipman, V.C. (1965). Early experience and the socialization of cognitive modes in children. Child Development, 36, 869-886.

When compared with groups of different social status, middle-class mothers in a teaching task use more praise, ask more questions, help children attend to a task, use more specific denotative words in orienting the child to the task, and have children who cooperate more successfully in carrying out block sorting and other tasks.

Hoffman, M.L. (1975). Moral internalization, parental power, and the nature of parent-child interaction. Developmental Psychology, 11, 228-239.

Power assertion, which includes (1) physical punishment, (2) deprivation of material objects or privilege, and (3) use of force or love withdrawal, is a discipline technique that is less effective than inductive discipline techniques associated with more advanced moral development. Love withdrawal may be emotionally devastating, posing the ultimate threat of abandonment.

Holzman, M. (1974). The verbal environment provided by mothers for their very young children. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 20, 31-42.

Children were found to comply with implicit verbal requests (e.g., "Your hands are really dirty") as well as explicit requests (e.g., "Please, go wash up!").

Honig, A.S. (1982). Research in review: Infant-mother communication. Young Children, 37(3), 52-62.

Mutual adult-infant interaction builds reciprocal, mutually satisfying chains of cooperation in feeding, soothing, diapering, gazing, and play interactions.

Honig, A.S. (1982). Research in review: Prosocial development in young children. Young Children, 37(5), 51-62.

Research findings suggest that young infants are capable of empathic responses to others

and that caregivers can help young children generate more prosocial alternatives to their social conflicts.

Honig, A.S. (1985). Research in review: Compliance, control, and discipline. Young Children, 40(2), 50-58.

Honig, A.S. (1985). Research in review: Compliance, control, and discipline. Young Children, 40(3), 42-52.

Short summaries of research findings on compliance are presented to parents and to caregivers involved in group care for children.

Honig, A.S. (1986). Stress and coping in children. Part 2. Young Children, 41(5), 47-59.

Among the research findings discussed are the effects of inappropriate parental discipline methods on increasing children's stress.

Honig, A.S., & Wittmer, D.S. (1985). Toddler bids and teacher responses. Child Care Quarterly, 14(1), 14-29.

Microanalysis of toddler-teacher interactions in day care serving low-income families revealed that on nearly half of the occasions that toddlers approached caregivers in a distressed-negative way, they were ignored or responded to in a negative or unsympathetic manner. Toddlers received positive responses (teaching, questioning, ego boosts, and attending) to 63.5% of their bids.

Howes, C., & Olenick, M. (1984, April) Family and child care influences on toddlers' compliance in a laboratory setting. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 254 301)

Toddlers in high quality child care were more skillful negotiators over compliance issues at home and resisted temptation better in a laboratory task than toddlers in low quality centers. The more hours the child spent alone per week with father, the less noncompliant the child was at home and in the center.

Huston-Stein, A., Friedrich-Cofer, L., & Susman, E.J. (1977). The relation of classroom structure to social behavior, imaginative play, and self-regulation of economically disadvantaged children. Child Development, 48(3), 908-916.

The amount of adult-directed activity in preschool classes was related to naturally occurring behavior in 13 urban Head Start classes attended by 141 children, 2 to 5 years of age. Compared with children in low-structure classes, children in high-structure classes engaged in less prosocial behavior toward peers, less imaginative play, and less aggression, had slightly more friendly peer interactions, were more attentive in circle time, helped to clean up more after free play, but did not show more independent task persistence.

Inoff, G., & Halverson, C., Jr. (1977). Behavioral disposition of child and caretaker-

child interaction. Developmental Psychology, 13, 274-281.

Thirty 5-month-old, middle-class nursery school children were observed at play with nurturant caregivers. Disruptive, noncooperative child behaviors elicited high levels of adult interaction. The shorter the child's attention span during play, the more adult initiations occurred.

Johnson, D., Johnson, R., Johnson, J., & Anderson, D. (1976). Effects of cooperative versus individualized instruction on student prosocial behavior, attitudes toward learning, and achievement. Journal of Educational Psychology, 68, 446-452.

In fifth and sixth grade math classrooms where cooperative learning strategies were used, children spent more time on work, had increased attendance, indicated more liking for school, had more positive attitudes toward the teacher, more internal control, and higher daily achievement compared with children receiving individualized instruction.

Kopp, C.B. (1982). Antecedents of self-regulation: A developmental perspective. Developmental Psychology, 18, 199-214.

Young children have an "internally generated monitoring system" that begins to function in response to external requests. Children need to be able to use reflection, thinking strategies, and contingency rules in order to monitor their own behavior in this manner.

Kuczynski, L. (1983). Reasoning, prohibitions, and motivations for compliance. Developmental Psychology, 19, 126-134.

Compared with more selfish rationales, other-oriented reasoning aroused more internal motivations for compliance in getting 9- and 10-year-old children to work instead of looking at attractive toys.

Kuczynski, L. (1984). Socialization goals and mother-child interaction: Strategies for long-term and short-term compliance. Developmental Psychology, 20(6), 1061-1073.

Sixty-four mothers were asked to influence their 4-year-old children to perform a monotonous task under long- or short-term goal conditions. Power assertion and reasoning were differentially used.

Kutnick, P.J., & Brees, P. (1982). The development of cooperation: Explorations in cognitive and moral competence and social authority. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 52, 361-365.

Over a 6-week period, children in a sensitivity group that promoted trust-dependence through exercises showed fewer competitive and more cooperative behaviors on a cognitive task and more child sensitivity on a moral task, than children trained in cooperative activities or simply given free play.

Leahy, R.L. (1979). Development of conceptions of prosocial behavior: Information affecting

rewards given for altruism and kindness. Developmental Psychology, 15(1), 34-37.

Graduate students, first graders, and fifth graders were presented situations of kindness or altruism, with children allocating rewards. Younger children used an additive principle, allocating greater rewards for behavior that led to positive consequences or avoided negative consequences. Older children used a discounting principle, allocating greater rewards for behavior that initially led to no reward or occurred under the threat of harm.

Londerville, S., & Main, M. (1981). Security attachment, compliance, and maternal training methods in the second year of life. Developmental Psychology, 17, 289-299.

Using Ainsworth's strange situation paradigm, the authors found that security of attachment at 12 months was a powerful predictor of compliance for boys and girls at 21 months. Securely attached toddlers were four times as likely to comply as actively to disobey. None showed angry active disobedience to their mothers. Nonsecurely attached toddlers were as likely to obey as disobey maternal commands.

Lytton, H. (1979). Disciplinary encounters between young boys and their mothers and fathers: Is there a contingency system? Developmental Psychology, 15(3), 256-268.

Lytton, H., & Zwirner, W. (1975). Compliance and its controlling stimuli observed in a natural setting. Developmental Psychology, 15, 769-779.

Parent suggestions are more helpful than command-prohibition or reasoning in gaining child compliance. Physical control and negative action by parents are particularly likely to be followed by noncompliance.

Madden, N., & Slavin, R. (1983). Effects of cooperative learning on the social acceptance of mainstreamed academically handicapped students. Journal of Special Education, 17, 171-182.

Self-esteem increased and the rejection of academically handicapped grade-school children decreased after the initiation of cooperative learning strategies, although friendships were not increased.

Madsen, M.C. (1971). Developmental and cross-cultural differences in the cooperative and competitive behavior of young children. Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 2, 365-371.

A cooperation game board was used to measure cooperative and competitive behavior. Research shows that children reared in traditional rural subcultures (such as in Mexico) and small agricultural communes (such as in Israel) cooperate more readily than children reared in modern urban subcultures. Children of all cultures cooperate more with others if group cooperation is rewarded directly rather than when individual rewards are available in the game.

Main, M., & Weston, D.R. (1981). The quality of the toddler's relationship to mother and to father: Related to conflict behavior and the

readiness to establish new relationships. Child Development, 52, 932-940.

A masked clown (stranger) played games with infants whose attachments to both parents were later rated. Infants securely attached to both parents had the highest cooperation score with the clown. The lowest score in returning friendly overtures was earned by infants insecurely attached to both parents.

Marcus, R.F., & Leiserson, M. (1978). Encouraging helping behavior. Young Children, 33, 24-34.

Preschool children who gave more help to teachers tended to receive more help from teachers in return.

Martin, J.A. (1981). A longitudinal study of the consequences of mother-infant interaction: A microanalytic approach. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 46(3, Serial No. 190).

Several measures from an interaction situation between 10-month-old infants and their mothers were used in a multiple regression framework to predict child compliance at 22 months and at 42 months; child willingness to explore at 22 months; and child interest in the experimenter at 42 months. Having a sense of control with a responsive mother is an important component of becoming compliant to one's mother for boys, but girls are unaffected in their compliance.

Martin, J., Maccoby, E., Baran, K., & Jacklin, C. (1981). Sequential analysis of mother-

child interaction at 18 months: A comparison of microanalytic methods. Developmental Psychology, 17(2), 146-157.

Mothers and children influence one another's behaviors and behaviors are reciprocated in kind--negatives by negatives, and positives by positives. Maternal negative behaviors influenced 18-month-olds to stop being negative if engaged negatively, but also served to start negative behaviors if they were not already under way.

Mash, E.J., & Johnston, C. (1982). A comparison of the mother-child interactions of younger and older hyperactive and normal children. Child Development, 53, 1371-1381.

Mother-child interactions of both younger and older hyper-active children were compared and contrasted with comparable age groups of normal children. Hyperactive children asked more questions and were generally more negative and noncompliant during play, particularly younger hyperactives.

Maslin, C., & Bates, J.E. (1982). Anxious attachment as a predictor of disharmony in the mother-toddler relationship. Paper presented at the biennial meeting of the International Conference on Infant Studies. Austin, TX.

Matas, L., Arend, R.A., & Stroufe, A.L. (1978). Continuity of adaption in the second year: The relationship between quality of attachment and later competence. Child Development, 49(3), 547-556.

This research provides powerful evidence that the quality of early attachment is related to

later competence and toddler cooperation with parents in a tool-using, problem-solving situation.

McLaughlin, B. (1983). Child compliance to parental control techniques. Developmental Psychology, 19, 1873-1894.

Children studied at home with toys and with each parent showed more compliance for attention controls. The 3 1/2-year-olds showed more compliance than toddlers, even in response to indirect controls. Compliance was present more often when there were also nonverbal supports to help children obey.

Minton, C., Kagan, J., & Levine, J.A. (1971). Maternal control and obedience in the two-year-old. Child Development, 42(6), 1873-1894.

Less well educated mothers were more likely to scold for petty infractions and noncompliance, used more physical punishment, and gave commands rather than requests. Better educated mothers were less authoritarian and less intrusive with their children, more tolerant of mild misdemeanor, and less prepared for mischief.

Moore, S.G. (1977). Research in review: Effects of television on prosocial behavior of young children. Young Children, 32(5), 60-64.

Morris, W.N., Marshall, H.M., & Miller, R.S. (1973). Effect of vicarious punishment on

prosocial behavior in children. Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 15(2), 222-236.

Norem-Hebersen, M., & Johnson, D. (1981). The relationship between cooperative, competitive, and individualistic attitudes and differentiated aspects of self-esteem. Journal of Personality, 49, 415-426.

When compared with competitive and individualistic situations, cooperative learning strategies in elementary school classrooms promoted greater feelings of support, more open and accurate communication of ideas and feelings, greater satisfaction from efforts to achieve, and greater ability to take the emotional and cognitive perspective of others.

Oldershaw, L., Walters, G.C., & Hall, D.K. (1986). Control strategies and noncompliance in abusive mother-child dyads: An observational study. Child Development, 57, 722-732.

Control mothers in structured and unstructured activities with preschoolers gave few commands, were less power-assertive, and more positive than abusive mothers. The latter were more intrusive, showed more flattened or negative affect, and were less flexible in trying to get children to comply; their preschoolers were significantly less compliant.

Olenick, M., Howes, C., Goldberg, C., Golub, J., & Lee, M. (1984, April). Family and child care influences on toddler's compliance in a laboratory setting. Paper presented at the

annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans.

Children attending high- versus low-quality or no day care acquired the capacity to self-regulate at 18 months--similar to 36-month-old no-day-care children. Parents of children in high quality day care were more invested in their child's compliance at an earlier age than other parents, using modeling and physical direction to gain child compliance at the younger toddler ages.

Patterson, G.R. (1984). Mothers: The unacknowledged victims. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 45(5).

Mothers who overuse aversive consequences, as in giving constant threats or nagging commands, have children with high social aggression and disobedience rates. The mothers could not perceive child deviance as well as mothers of non-aggressive children, who used talk, laughter, and approval more. The coercive mothers lacked skills in setting up house-hold rules to increase compliance, and follow through in behavioral management.

Peterson, L.G. (1982). Social structure, socialization values, and disciplinary techniques. A cross-cultural analy-sis. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 44(1), 131-142.

Pines, M. (1979). Good Samaritans at age two? Psychology Today, 13, 66-74.

Research by Yarrow and Zahn-Waxler reveals that mothers who were (1) forceful in not accepting aggression as a means for their infant to resolve social conflicts and (2) empathic and tender when the child was distressed had toddlers who were much more empathic and cooperative with other toddlers, peers, and others in distress. These behaviors were stable throughout childhood.

Rogoff, B., & Radziszewska, B. (1985, April). The influence of collaboration with parents versus peers. Paper presented at the biennial meetings of the Society for Research in Child Development, Toronto.

The experience of 32 9-year-olds in planning routes to carry out errands resulted in enhanced competence when done in cooperation with adults rather than peers.

Rubenstein, J.L., Howes, C., & Boyle, P. (1981). A two year follow-up of infants in community based day care. Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 22, 209-218.

Mothers of 3 1/2-year-olds, half of whom had been in day care since early infancy, were asked to have their children cooperate in two boring tasks. Behavior problems were equally likely, but temper tantrums and noncompliance were signifi-cantly more frequent in the child care group than in the home-reared group.

Sagotsky, G., Wood-Schneider, P., & Konap, M. (1981). Learning to cooperate: Effects of modeling and direct instruction. Child Development, 52, 1037-1042.

First graders had more difficulty than 10-year-olds in generalizing a learned cooperative strategy to new situations. Cooperation increased as children became more familiar with the tasks and games.

Scarr, S., & McCartney, K. (1985). Bermuda: The Child Development Project of the Ministries of Health and Social Services and Education. Unpublished report. "Report to the Bermuda Government on the Mother Home Programme."

Mothers who control their children in positive ways have higher vocabulary scores and higher educational levels than mothers who are more punitive. Children of positive-control mothers have higher intellectual levels and are more cooperative, attentive, and persistent on intellectual tasks than the children of mothers who are more punitive.

Schaffer, H.R., & Crook, C.K. (1979). Maternal control techniques in a directed play situation. Child Development, 50(4), 989-996.

Self-control and self-regulation will be far easier for young children to learn if adults are contingent and positive in their responses to child compliance.

Schaffer, H., & Crook, C.K. (1980). Child compliance and maternal control techniques. Developmental Psychology, 16(1), 54-61.

Mothers' ability to gain toddler compliance in a laboratory playrooom with toys was examined. Maternal controls were most likely to succeed if they formed part of a sequential attention-

action strategy. When a mother timed her directive by first ensuring that the child was appropriately attending to the toy before asking for contact with the toy, compliance was higher. Successful manipulation of the child's state of attention avoided a clash of wills. Nonverbal accompaniments of verbal controls helped toddlers to orient to the toy compliantly.

Seegmiller, B.R., & Suter, B. (1977). Relations between cognitive and behavioral measures of prosocial development in children. Journal of Genetic Psychology, 131(1), 161-162.

Sixty-six preschoolers, 37 kindergarteners, and 81 fifth and sixth graders were tested for their understanding of prosocial behavior, using the Baldwin Kindness Picture Story Instrument. Cooperative task behavior was significantly related to the number of correct kindness choices for all age groups. In contrast, helping behavior failed to relate significantly to either the number of correct kindness choices or the number of articulate explanations given.

Siegal, A.E., & Kohn, L.G. (1970). Permissiveness, permission, and aggression: The effects of adult presence or absence on aggression in children. In F. Rebelsky & L. Dorman (Eds.), Child development and behavior. New York: Knopf.

Caregivers who were present and did nothing when children were interacting aggressively were considered by children to be approving of their aggression.

Siegal, M., & Rablin, J. (1982). Moral development as reflected by young children's evaluation of maternal discipline. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 28, 499-509.

A large majority of 4- to 5 1/2-year-old children indicated a preference for an interventionist mother in response to a story of a child who was naughty, rude, or knocking down blocks. The strict mother was judged "good" compared with the permissive mother.

Slaby, R.G., & Crowley, C.G. (1975). Modification of cooperation and aggression through teacher attention to children's speech. Unpublished manuscript, University of Washington, Seattle.

Slavin, R. (1983). When does cooperative learning experience increase student achievement? Psychological Bulletin, 94, 429-445.

Slavin, R. (1983). Cooperative learning. New York: Longman.

Training with cooperative learning in one situation (when two or more children were rewarded on the basis of their performance as a group) was generalized to other academic and nonacademic situations. "Responsibility forces" or interpersonal sanctions exerted pressure on members of the group to do well and to police those who were not doing their assigned tasks. Children who experienced success from cooperative situations had an internal locus of control and higher self-esteem.

Smith, P.K. (1983). Training in fantasy play. Early Child Development and Care, 11(3-4), 17-25.

Fantasy play training led to more engagement of children in cooperative play and in larger subgroups than did nonfantasy play training in British nursery classes.

Smolak, L., Beller, E.K., & Vance, S. (1977, August). Relationships between parental disciplinary techniques and negativism in preschoolers. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Psychological Association, San Francisco.

An observational study of 30 preschool boys and their mothers found that noncoercive disciplinary techniques were significantly more effective than coercive techniques for terminating episodes of noncompliance.

Snyder, J.J. (1977). Reinforcement analysis of interaction in problem and nonproblem families. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 86(5), 528-535.

Twenty families with a male child 5 to 10 years old were observed in a laboratory setting and coded using a Behavioral Rating System. Results showed that problem families provided more aversive and fewer positive consequents for prosocial behavior and more positive and fewer consequents for deviant behavior than did nonproblem families.

Staub, E. (1978). Positive social behavior and morality: Social and personality influences (Vol. 1). New York: Academic Press.

Staub, E., Bar-Tal, D., Karylowski, J., & Reykowski, J. (1984). Development and maintenance of prosocial behavior. Haifa: Plenum Press.

Research and theories are reviewed concerning prosocial behavior--its motivations, consequences, interaction patterns, and the factors that promote or discourage acts of kindness, generosity, and cooperation.

Stayton, D.J., Hogan, R., & Ainsworth, M.D.S. (1971). Infant obedience and maternal behavior: The origins of socialization reconsidered. Child Development, 42(4), 1057-1069.

Three scales assess the degree of harmony in infant-mother interactions: sensitivity-insensitivity, acceptance-rejection, and cooperation-interference. Infants were more likely to obey parental signals and use self-control if they had a positive harmonious, affectional, cooperative relationship with their parents.

Tamashiro, R.T., & Markson, M.B. (1985). Parents' view of discipline in the preschool and the home. ERIC Newsletter, 17(3), 1-3. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 210 117)

The majority of the parents disciplined their children in an authoritative, interventionist style and expected their preschoolers' teachers to do the same. Teachers, however, used noninterventionist and interactionist approaches to discipline.

Wahler, R.G., Winkel, G.H., Peterson, R.F., & Morrison, D.C. (1965). Mothers as behavior therapists for their own children. Behavior Research and Therapy, 3, 113-114.

This behavioral analysis involved obtaining baseline data on deviant children. Mothers delivered and withheld social reinforcements contingently in order to increase child cooperation. Mothers can be trained as therapists to decrease children's deviant behavior and increase child compliance.

Webster-Stratton, C. (1985). The effects of father involvement in parent training for conduct problem children. Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 26(5), 801-810.

Thirty families received parent training for conduct-disordered children. Behavioral data showed significant increase in mother praises and reduction in mother-negative behavior and child noncompliance. One year later, significantly more of the mother-child dyads maintained improvement if the fathers had been involved with their families and with some of the therapy in comparison with father-absent families.

Welsh, R.S. (1976). Violence, permissiveness, and the overpunished child. Journal of Pediatric Psychology, 1, 68-71.

Over 90% of delinquent, antisocial adolescents reported that the major method of discipline in their families was severe physical punishment with assorted instruments. The more severe the delinquency, the more aggressive earlier parent punition had been. Later child cooperation with societal norms is strongly

related to earlier parental discipline techniques.

Wetstone, H.S., & Friedlander, B.Z. (1973). The effect of word order on young children's responses to simple questions and commands. Child Development, 44, 734-740.

When placed with their mother and a box of toys, 2- to 3-year-olds cooperated with 90% of the normal word order requests (i.e., "Give the ball to Mommy") and 79.5% of the scrambled order requests (i.e., "You how jump me show.")

Wilton, K., & Barbour, A. (1978). Mother-child interaction in high-risk and contrast preschoolers of low socioeconomic status. Child Development, 49, 1136-1145.

Mothers of older high-risk children (30 to 46 month), in comparison with contrast children, engaged less often in didactic teaching and encouraged their child's activities less often; and attempts to control their child's activities more often resulted in failure. No differences were found for young high-risk infants (12 to 27 months) and contrast children.

Wodarski, J.S., Feldman, R.A., Ronald, A., & Pedi, S.J. (1976). Reduction of antisocial behavior in an open community setting through the use of behavior modification in groups. Child Care Quarterly, 5(3), 198-210.

Fifth and sixth graders with a high degree of antisocial behavior participated 2 hours per week in a physical activity and group discussion treatment program. A nonparticipant

observer measured the frequency of prosocial, nonsocial, and antisocial behavior. Prosocial behavior increased significantly and antisocial behavior decreased significantly between the baseline and the reinforcement conditions.

Wolfe, V.V., & others. (1983). Teaching cooperative play to behavior-problem preschool children. Education and Treatment of Children, 6(1), 1-9.

A token economy program was effective in increasing cooperative play of preschoolers who displayed inappropriate peer interactions.

Zeece, P.D., & Crase, S.J. (1982). Effects of verbal warning on compliant and transition behavior of preschool children. Journal of Psychology, 112(2), 269-274.

Transition and compliant behavior for 20 male and 20 female preschoolers in a free play situation was facilitated when the caregiver gave a verbal warning before activity change.

Ziegler, S. (1981). The effectiveness of cooperative learning teams for increasing cross-ethnic friendship: Additional evidence. Human Organization, 40, 264-268.

When children of different ethnic backgrounds were put into cooperative learning situations for 8 weeks, casual cross-ethnic friendships increased significantly.

SECTION 2: APPLIED REFERENCES

Adcock, D., & Segal, M. (1983). Making friends: Ways of encouraging social development in young children. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Adcock, D., & Segal, M. (1985). Play together, grow together. Mt. Rainier, MD: Gryphon House.

Sixty-seven cooperative activities covering 12 major curriculum areas require two or more children to work together cooperatively. Preschool children learn to share, to play together in a group, and to make close friends.

Alkvord, J.R. (1973). Home token economy: An incentive program for children and their parents. Champaign, IL: Research Press.

A behavioral management program is spelled out for parents to increase compliance among misbehaving children.

Aronson, E., Blaney, N., Stephan, C., Siked, J., & Snapp, M. (1978). The jigsaw classroom. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

Each child is provided with one piece of information about a lesson. Thus, children must work cooperatively in groups to learn all the materials.

Asher, S.R., & Renshaw, P.D. (1981). Children without friends: Social knowledge and social skills training. In S.R. Asher & J.M. Gottman

(Eds.). The development of children's friendships. Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.

Babcock, D., & Keepers, T. (1976). Raising kids O.K. New York: Avon Books.

Baruch, D.W. (1949). New ways on discipline: You and your child. New York: McGraw Books.

Becker, W. (1971). Parents are teachers: A child management program. Champaign, IL: Research Press.

A behavioral approach to discipline is taught using stimulus-response terminology.

Berry, J. (1982). Let's talk about disobeying. Danbury, CT: Grolier Enterprises.

This is a book a parent can read with preschoolers to help them understand why parents get to set rules, why it is important to follow them, and why a parent punishes when rules are disobeyed. Children learn to talk about rules they feel are unfair.

Birkmayer, J. (1984). Discipline is not a dirty word. Ithaca, NY: Cooperative Extension Distribution Center, Cornell University.

Seven principles of discipline are offered: focus on dos instead of don'ts; preserve children's feelings that they are lovable and capable; offer children choices only when you are willing to abide by their decisions; change the environment to enhance cooperation

when possible; find mutually acceptable ways; give children safe, clear limits; maintain your authority; and set a good example.

Blechman, E.A. (1985). Solving child behavior problems at home and at school. Champaign, IL: Research Press.

This systematic program is designed to eliminate child behavior problems such as noncompliance, fighting, lying, and self-destructive behavior.

Borba, M., & Borba, C. (1985). Self-esteem: A classroom affair (Vol. 1). Nashville, TN: School Age Notes.

Over 101 ways for children to help other children are provided.

Borba, M., & Borba, C. (1985). Self-esteem: A classroom affair (Vol. 2). Nashville, TN: School Age Notes.

Activities focus on knowing oneself, being a member of a group, and on problem-solving skills to encourage healthy self-esteem.

Bourgeois, D. (1979). Positive discipline: A practical approach to disruptive behavior. NASSP Bulletin, 63(428), 68-71.

The transactional analysis model states that people have three ego states: child, parent, and adult. Problems arise when people interact on the basis of these different ego states. People need to understand the gamelike nature

of communication, the importance of active listening, and the origins of behavior.

Brenner, B. (1983). Love and discipline. New York: Ballantine Books.

Reassuring guidelines are offered for parents and teachers to explain how a child experiences the world and how to deal with common discipline situations from birth through 12 years.

Briggs, D. (1970). Your child's self-esteem: A step by step guide for raising productive, happy children. Garden City, NY: Doubleday.

In easy-to-read prose, the author explains how parents are mirrors for their children and how encouragements and positive regard will enable young children to grow into cooperative family members.

Bromwich, R. (1981). Working with parents and infants: An interactional approach. Baltimore: University Park Press.

A problem-solving process is advocated to provide support, information, and encouragement so that parents can discern which solutions to behavioral problems are best for them.

Buckley, N.K., & Walker, H.M. (1983). Modifying classroom behavior: A manual of procedures for classroom teachers. Champaign, IL: Research Press.

Cooperative behaviors are learned when a teacher reinforces, models, shapes, and generalizes them. Extinction, time-out, counter-conditioning, stimulus-satiation, and stimulus change techniques are described.

Caille, R.K. (1983). Resistant behavior of preschool children. Child Development Monographs, No. 11. New York: Teachers College Press.

Oppositional behavior and noncompliance begin at 18 months and have usually declined by age 5 1/2 to 6 years.

Canter, L. (1979). Assertive discipline: A take charge approach for today's educator. Los Angeles: Canter & Associates.

Workbooks, worksheets, and resource materials are provided to help a teacher use assertive discipline in classrooms. This is a method of providing an increasingly severe set of social penalties, beginning with writing the child's name on the board, for misbehaviors.

Canter, L. (1983). Assertive discipline for parents. New York: Harper & Row.

Assertive discipline techniques look at the manner in which teachers' attitudes govern their behavior. Students should be involved in rule making, and the consequences for rule breaking should be made public. Consequences should range from a warning to detention. Teachers must justify disciplinary actions to students in terms of insistence on their being able to teach.

Canter, L., & Canter, M. (1982). Assertive discipline for parents. Workshop kit. Circle Pines, MN: American Guidance Service.

This audiovisual presentation is available on video as well as filmstrip and audiocassette to help a group leader conduct sessions with parents. Parents are taught how to communicate, to say what they mean and mean what they say, and how to discipline when children misbehave or are manipulative. A parent Resource Guide with contracts, positive charts, and stickers is also available.

Carkhuff, R.R. (1985). Productive problem solving and productive parenting. Amherst, MA: Human Resource Development Press.

The skills of parents are noted as: attendees, responders, personalizers, initiators, helpers, teachers, and workers. Parents are encouraged to understand the problem with a child, analyze, define values, expand alternative courses, and improve upon preferred courses of action.

Carter, R.D. (1985). Help! These kids are driving me crazy. Champaign, IL: Research Press.

Clever illustrations and humorous writing are used to help teachers use behavior modification techniques to achieve classroom control.

Cartledge, G., & Milburn, J.F. (1980). Teaching social skills to children. New York: Pergamon Press.

Diagnostic teaching techniques used by the authors define in specific behaviorally-stated terms the social skills to be taught; assess student level of competence; teach the behaviors lacking in the learner's repertoire; evaluate the results of teaching; and provide opportunities for practice and generalization or transfer of new social skills to new situations.

Charles, C.M. (1985). Building classroom discipline: From models to practice. New York: Longman.

Cherry, C. (1983). Please don't sit on the kids: Alternatives to punitive discipline. New York: Pitman Learning.

Parents are taught Cherry's "magic list" of alternatives to disciplining in a punitive way. These "non-discipline discipline" techniques are: model correct behavior, clarify messages, point out consequences, solve problems, use praise appropriately, encourage children, and have rational discussions with children.

Child Development Project, The. (1985). Working together. 130 Ryan Court, Suite 210, San Ramon, CA.

This newsletter provides ongoing information on the child Development 5-year project. Data from classroom observations, small group activity sessions, and interviews show that in three CDP program schools, compared with three contrast schools, children are more likely to be spontaneously helpful, demonstrate concern for others, take turns and support each other,

and behave positively toward each other and their teachers.

Clarizio, H.F. (1976). Toward positive classroom discipline (2nd ed.). New York: Wiley & Sons.

Students misbehave because the consequences of misbehavior are reinforcing. Behavior modification techniques suggest that rewarding desirable behavior is more effective than punishing undesirable behavior.

Clemens, S.G. (1985). The sun's not broken, a cloud's just in the way: On child-centered teaching. Washington, DC: Acropolis Books.

The relationship between feelings and early childhood learning is illustrated by classroom examples. Giving children attention when they are complying (rather than for being bad) is stressed.

Copple, C., Siegel, I.E., & Saunders, R. (1979). Educating the young thinker. New York: Van Nostrand.

Chapter seven, "The Social Domain," outlines the cognitive processes necessary for the acquisition of social knowledge and also suggests classroom activities to enhance development of these processes. For example, role-playing and perspective-taking games are suggested to handle disagreements so that preschoolers can come to more cooperative resolution of conflicts.

Crary, E. (1979). Without spanking or spoiling. Seattle: Parenting Press.

A practical approach to toddler and preschool guidance is offered with a variety of discipline techniques.

Crary, E. (1984). Kids can cooperate: A practical guide to teaching problem solving. Seattle: Parenting Press.

Helpful suggestions illustrated by examples to gain children's cooperation include: give age-appropriate affirmations; encourage negotiation where children can win; set age-appropriate limits; structure the environment to reduce conflict; model problem solving; teach children to ask for attention constructively; recognize the child as a competent individual; and develop plans and evaluate them with children.

Curwin, R.L., & Mendler, A.N. (1980). The discipline book: A complete guide to school and classroom management. Reston, WV: Reston.

DeMille, R. (1967). Put your mother on the ceiling. New York: Walker Books.

Imaginative exercises are suggested whereby children can stretch their powers of creativity and ability to understand different points of view through imagery and story making.

Dinkmeyer, D., & Dinkmeyer, D., Jr. (1982). Developing understanding of self and others (Rev. Duso-R). Circle Pines, MN: American Guidance Service.

Duso the dolphin, other puppets, audiocassettes, activity cards, and charts are used to guide children toward learning social skills and awareness of feelings, priorities, and choices, as well as appreciation of individual strengths and acceptance of limitations.

Dinkmeyer, D., & Dreikurs, R. (1963). Encouraging children to learn. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Nine pointers are given: (1) place value on the child as he or she is; (2) show faith in the child; (3) build self-respect in the child; (4) give recognition for effort; (5) use class group to enhance child's development; (6) integrate the group so that the child has a place in it; (7) assist child to build skills sequentially to ensure success; (8) recognize and focus on strengths; and (9) use the interest of the child to energize constructive activity.

Dinkmeyer, D., & McKay, G.D. (1980). STEP: The leader's manual. Circle Pines, MN: American Guidance Service.

These resources, together with audiotapes and posters, are designed to help groups of parents learn to understand the basic causes of children's misbehavior (to gain attention, power, revenge, or acceptance) and find positive ways to handle discipline problems.

Dinkmeyer, D., & McKay, G.D. (1980). STEP: The parent's handbook. Circle Pines, MN: American Guidance Service.

Dinkmeyer, D., & McKay, G.D. (1987). The next step. Circle Pines, MN: American Guidance Service.

This six-session program offers parents the opportunity to continue STEP program techniques to help children become cooperative and responsible. Through group discussion and readings in the participants' handbook (The Effective Parent) parents learn how their mistaken beliefs can be changed for more constructive, positive ones to help their children cope with stress.

Docking, J.W. (1980). Control and discipline in schools: Perspectives and approaches. London: Harper & Row.

Docking, J. (1982). The impact of control and management systems on young children in the early years of schooling. Early Child Development and Care, 8, 239-252.

The author posits a relationship between the attributional tendencies of teachers in their explanations of unwanted behavior and the amelioration of that behavior. Also, the uses of praise and punishment are explored.

Dobson, J. (1970). Dare to discipline. Wheaton, IL: Tyndall House.

Dodson, F. (1978). How to discipline with love. New York: New American Library.

Parents are to make very clear moral, ethical, and behavioral rules for children. When these boundaries are violated, then children should

be disciplined. Intentional breaking of rules requires punishment through physical intervention. Dodson recommends that a teacher give love and warmth to the offending child after punishment.

Doyle, W. (1985). Recent research on classroom management: Implications for teacher preparation. Journal of Teacher Education, 36(3), 31-35.

A summary of major conceptual and empirical advances in classroom management is accompanied by a guide to literature in the area.

Draper, K. (1984). "How am I ever going to control this class?" The Directive Teacher, 6(2), 14.

The point card is suggested as a system to help teachers focus children on their appropriate daily behaviors such as coming in and sitting down quietly, beginning work, and not bothering a neighbor. A weekly chart with checks helps teacher and child to see where more socialization work is needed. Stickers, happy faces, and check marks are used to mark achieved behaviors at day's end.

Dreikurs, F., & Cassel, C.K. (1970). Discipline without teachers: What to do with children who misbehave. New York: Hawthorne Books.

Children's annoying, destructive, hostile behavior shows that they are trying to fill inner needs or subconscious goals of attention seeking, power and control, revenge, or

helplessness. The teacher should determine the child's goal or goals through observation and questioning and then emphasize improvement, refraining from placing students in competition against one another. Encouragement rather than praise is promoted. The teacher arranges logical consequences for the offending student to experience.

Dreikurs, F., & Grey, L. (1970). A parents's guide to child discipline. New York: Hawthorne Press.

Logical consequences are suggested as an effective discipline technique. Children are viewed as socially motivated to want to belong.

Dreikurs, F., Grunwald, B.B., & Pepper, F.C. (1982). Maintaining sanity in the classroom: Classroom management techniques (2nd ed.). New York: Harper & Row.

Classroom discipline techniques are given with detailed examples of preoccupation with one's authority; nagging or scolding; double standards; threats or fault-finding; waiting until you have children's attention; understanding the purpose of the child's behavior; giving a misbehaving child a choice; using natural consequences; being consistent; establishing cooperative planning; using the class community; meaning what you say; closing an incident quickly; working cooperatively with the children; and combining kindness with firmness.

Duke, D.L. (1977). A systematic management plan for school discipline. NASSP Bulletin, 61(405), 1-10.

This plan emphasizes that students should be addressed on a schoolwide basis. Organizational mechanisms should be established for reducing-problems such as conflict resolution, team trouble-shooting, parental involvement, and providing reinforcing consequences for learning.

Duke, D.L., & Meckel, A.M. (1984). Teacher's guide to classroom management. New York: Random House.

Nine approaches to classroom management are explained and referenced: assertive discipline, behavior modification, logical consequences, positive peer culture, reality therapy, social literacy, systematic management plan, teacher effectiveness training, and transactional analysis.

Englemann, S., & Colvin, G. (1983). Generalized compliance training. Austin, TX: Pro-Ed Press.

A stimulus-response behavioral modification program for teaching students who are noncompliant describes extinction training and task assessment procedures.

Essa, E. (1983). A practical guide to solving preschool behavior problems. Cincinnati, OH: Delmar.

Aggressive, disruptive, and emotional behaviors are handled by a systematic approach that involves observing the behavior, learning when and how it usually occurs, and who is the victim. Teachers help by teaching a child to control hurting impulses. Differing emotions are discussed. Time out is used if hurting

occurs. All positive cooperative social interactions are praised.

Faber, A., & Mazlish, E. (1980). How to talk so kids will listen and listen so kids will talk. New York: Avon Books.

Cartoon illustrations and written exercises are provided for adults to learn ways to enhance child cooperation.

Fagan, S.A., Long, N.J., & Stevens, D.J. (1975). Teaching children self control. Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill.

Forehand, R.L., & McMahon, R.J. (1981). Helping the non- compliant child: A clinician's guide to parent training. New York: Guilford Press.

A "how to" manual for health professionals, this guide is based on social learning principles. The program presents a behavioral formulation of noncompliance, a behavioral coding system, parent handouts, treatment procedures, extensive tests and scoring keys, and a parent's consumer satisfaction questionnaire.

Fraiberg, S.H. (1959). The magic years: Handling the problems of early childhood. New York: Scribner & Sons.

Freed, A.M. (1973). TA for tots (and other prinzes). Sacramento, CA: Jalmar Press.

This colorful book can help adults and children understand games people play in misbehaving such as "Stupid," "Chip on the Shoulder," or "Make Me." The child who is misbehaving has unbearable tension between the personality components of restraint (parent), rationality (adult), and creativity (child). The teacher's job is to affirm that the student is capable and can trust others. "Stroking" is the expression of affection that people need to behave cooperatively.

Freeman, M.J. (1974). The development of uniform and specific measures for the organization of child behavior in the home. Journal of Child Psychology, 3(3), 230-246.

A bare "home control room" is suggested where parents can place their noncomplying children. The child is deprived of play for a while and thus learns the reality of cause and effect principles tying his cooperation to his opportunities to play.

Fugitt, E.D. (1983). "He hit me first!": Creative visualization activities for parenting and teaching. Rolling Hills Estate, CA: Winch & Associates.

Visualization exercises help children imagine the natural and logical consequences of their choices before they act so that they can self-correct and increase positive behavior.

Gartrell, D. (1987). Viewpoint. Assertive discipline: Unhealthy for children and other living things. Young Children, 42(2), 10-17.

The child singled out for punishment is punished for having a problem with compliance rather than helped to resolve that problem. Negative attitudes toward schoolwork could be formed through the social ostracism that occurs when children with disciplinary referral slips are barred from social events in the school. Instead, making curriculum and methods more appropriate for children's development often prevents discipline problems.

Ginott, H.G. (1965). Between parent and child: New solutions to old problems. New York: Avon Books.

Home scenarios help adults to rethink the reasons for children's uncomfortable or unacceptable behavior and to consider how children's positive emotional responses can be encouraged.

Ginott, H.G. (1972). Teacher and child. New York: McMillan.

Glasser, W. (1969). Schools without failure. New York: Harper & Row.

Practical suggestions are given for handling classroom misbehavior in a constructive way.

Glasser, W. (1977). Ten steps to good discipline. Today's Education, 66(4), 61-63.

Reality therapy is suggested as a technique to increase the opportunities for students to feel good about themselves. Teachers can (1) create groups in which students discuss

concerns and develop communication and awareness skills, (2) eliminate activities that ensure that some students will fail, and (3) see that students make a formal commitment to overcome their problems.

Glazer, J. (1981). Literature for young children. Columbus, OH: Merrill.

The chapter on children's personality development and children's social and moral development has such topics as understanding and expressing own emotions and feelings and intentions of others; understanding several viewpoints; encouraging children to set and complete tasks; and helping children make choices. Teaching strategies are recommended, as are suitable books and stories for children 3 to 8 years of age.

Goffin, S.G. (1987). Cooperative behaviors: They need our support. Young Children, 42(2), 75-81.

Teachers can learn to arrange interdependent behaviors between and among children. These cooperative behaviors can be recognized in the classroom when children share mutual goals, ideas, and materials, as well as when they negotiate and bargain in decision making and accomplishing goals.

Gordon, T. (1970). Parent effectiveness training. New York: Wyden Press.

Adults are asked to consider "who owns the problem" when a child misbehaves. If the child is troubled, the active listening technique is prescribed to help the child talk through

negative emotions. If the adult owns the problem, clear "I" messages will clarify adult feelings and rules for the child. Problem-solving councils among adults and children are urged as a technique to promote mutually agreeable family conflict resolution.

Gordon, T. (1974). Teacher effectiveness training. New York: David McKay.

Teachers are to practice, not preach. They should first define problems through "I" messages and "active listening," then generate, evaluate, and decide on solutions. Clear agreements must be established for evaluating and implementing solutions to conflicts in this no-lose, conflict-solving process. Modeling has a powerful effect. A teacher must reflect, plan, predict, and prevent classroom noncompliance.

Greenspan, S. (1983). A unifying framework for educating caregivers about discipline. Child Care Quarterly, 12(1), 5-27.

Three discipline approaches are integrated: "affective" (emphasizes the caregiver's willingness to exert control), "behavioral" (emphasizes the caregiver's skill in maintaining control), and "cognitive" (emphasizes the caregiver's skill in making clear the rationale underlying control). Three themes connect the three approaches: adult control, tolerance, and warmth.

Harris, T. (undated). The OK classroom [Film]. Media Five, 3211 Cahuenga Blvd. West, Los Angeles, CA.

This film helps adults analyze ego-states of adults and children so that there are no crossed-state transactions, but an adult-adult, reality-based interaction in discipline. This helps a child maintain OK feelings about the self.

Harrison, M. (1976). For the fun of it: Selected cooperative games for children and adults. Philadelphia: Friends Peace Committee.

Haswell, K.L., Hock, E., & Wenar, C. (1982). Techniques for dealing with oppositional behavior in preschool children. Young Children, 37(3), 13-18.

Noncompliant behavior of preschoolers is seen as an important milestone in cognitive and emotional development. Children learn the concept of negativism and of separate self with separate will. Adults need to be flexible when making transitions: offer choices, give verbal alerts about transitions, and give children time to comply.

Health Sciences Consortium. (1985). Dealing with noncompliance [Videotape]. Carrboro, NC: Health Sciences Consortium Press.

Nine vignettes present a special program for times when a child is noncompliant. The concepts: understanding how to implement time out for noncompliance; understanding ways to explain time out to children, avoiding power struggles dealing with the child who refuses to go to time out or refuses to stay in time out; ignoring children's inappropriate responses; following through effectively and

consistently; and avoiding common mistakes concerning time out.

Health Sciences Consortium. (1985). Helping children learn to accept limits [Videotape]. Carrboro, NC: Health Sciences Consortium Press.

Nineteen vignettes, emphasizing the importance of following through with commands in a consistent manner, present these major concepts: dealing with children who test the limits; understanding when to divert and distract children; avoiding arguments and "why games"; recognizing traps children set for parents; ignoring inappropriate responses; following through with commands effectively; and helping children to be more compliant.

Health Sciences Consortium. (1985). How to set limits [Videotape]. Carrboro, NC: Health Sciences Consortium Press.

Presents 34 vignettes of adults and children in real life situations designed to help parents. Covers the following topics: household rules; effective commands; unnecessary commands; unclear, vague, and negative commands; positive alternatives; when to use "when-then" commands; reminders; and problem-solving techniques.

Hendrick, J. (1980). Helping young children establish self-discipline and self-control. In J. Hendrick (Ed.), The whole child: New trends in early education (pp. 85-97). St. Louis: C.V. Mosby.

Kohlberg's stages of moral reasoning are explained for teachers of preschoolers. Practical suggestions are given for preventing and handling children's misbehaviors.

Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. (1978). The family game. Menlo Park, CA: Addison-Wesley.

How parents move from authoritarian style to one allowing the child more autonomy is discussed. There are four styles of parent leadership: telling, convincing, participating, and delegating.

Hipple, M.L. (1978). Classroom discipline problems? Fifteen humane solutions. Childhood Education, 58, 83-187.

Some basic assumptions for classroom discipline are: it is preferable to identify causes of behavior than to treat isolated behaviors; positive or neutral techniques work better than negative techniques; and versatility in approach is very effective.

Honig, A.S. (1982). Playtime learning games for young children. Syracuse, NY: Syracuse University Press.

Tips for enlisting children's cooperation in learning games for family day care or at home include: make a magic triangle so that teacher and child focus on the activity; use words for teaching but also let children act on the materials; matchmake and dance the developmental ladder to ensure that what is required of the child is neither too easy nor too difficult, but just challenging enough.

Honig, A.S. (1983). Meeting the needs of infants. Dimensions, 1(2), 4-7.

Problem prevention through nurturinng responsive interactions is stressed.

Honig, A.S. (1984). Discipline in families. The Distaff, 51(1), 1-2.

An historical overview of discipline techniques is provided to emphasize the need for a more coherent societal approach to discipline problems.

Honig, A.S. (1985). Love and learn: Discipline for young children. Washington, DC: National Association for the Education of Young Children.

This pamphlet provides easy-to-understand ideas to help parents discipline with more insight and affection.

Honig, A.S. (1985). Research in review: Compliance, control, and discipline. Young Children, 40(3), 42-52.

A review of the research on child compliance, with practical suggestions for caregivers offered in a conclusion.

Johnson, D.W., & Johnson, R.T. (1975). Learning together and alone. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

A theory of cooperative classroom learning is offered with suggestions for application.

Jones, F. (1979, June). The gentle art of classroom discipline. National Elementary Principal, 58, 26-32.

Teachers are instructed to use three levels of nonverbal language in disciplining, including the stare, before speaking to a child. Comments about misbehavior are made to an individual child, not before the group.

Jones, V., & Jones, L. (1981). Responsible classroom discipline: Creating positive learning environments and solving problems. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Kamii, C., & DeVries, R. (1980). Group games in early education: Implications of Piaget's theory. Washington, DC: National Association for the Education of Young Children.

Keister, M.E. (1973). Discipline: The secret heart of child care. Greensboro: Infant Care Center, Home Economics, University of North Carolina.

Kindsvetter, R. (1978). A new view of the dynamics of discipline. Phi Delta Kappan, 59(5), 322-324.

Knight, M., Graham, T.L., Juliano, R.A., Meksza, S.R., & Tonniew, P. (1982). Teaching children to love themselves: A handbook for parents and teachers of young children. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

A variety of activities is presented to help develop positive self concepts in children and to boost their academic achievement.

Kounin, J.S. (1970). Discipline and group management in classrooms. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Teacher variables, such as making learners accountable, smoothness, and "withitness," are correlated with student work involvement and freedom from deviancy in recitation lessons.

Kreidler, W. (1985). Creative conflict resolution. Nashville, TN: School Age Notes.

Over 20 conflict-resolution techniques and more than 200 activities and cooperative games for keeping peace in the classroom are provided.

Leatzow, N., Neuhauser, C., & Wilmes, L. (1983). Creating discipline in the early childhood classroom. Provo, UT: Brigham Young University Press.

The authors show how to create a classroom environment rich in emotional and social supports. Additionally, if the room arrangements provide rich selections of materials to promote optimal learning, then an environment of discipline is created.

Leavitt, R., & Eheart, B.K. (1985). Toddler day care: A guide to responsive parenting. Lexington, MA: Heath.

Guidelines are offered for creating a supportive, secure environment through gradual introductions of new routines, preparation of toddlers for transitions, minimizing waiting time, restrictions, reprimands, and competition.

Lerman, S. (1984). Responsive parenting. Circle Pines, MN: American Guidance Service.

Nine booklets and five posters are included in this parenting kit, which provides practical suggestions to improve children's compliance and cooperation.

Levin, J., Nolan, J., Hoffman, N., & Jones, C. (1984, April). A strategy for classroom resolution of chronic discipline problems. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans.

Students are held accountable for their own misbehavior. Teachers use an anecdotal record technique to document cooperation and misbehavior. Student conferences build awareness of the factually recorded episodes and help students control their behavior.

Lickona, T. (1985). Raising good children from birth through the teenage years. New York: Bantam Books.

The ten major ideas that parents are given are (1) morality is respect; (2) kids develop morality slowly, in stages that parents need to learn; (3) mutual respect is important; (4) teach by example; (5) teach by telling; (6) help kids learn to think; (7) help children

take on real responsibilities; (8) balance independence and control; (9) love children and help them develop a positive self-concept; and (10) foster fairness for a happy family.

Lillie, D.L. (1982). Carolina Developmental Curriculum (Book 3): Activities in social-emotional development. New York: Walker Educational Book Corp.

Eighty activities are provided to help children develop social skills, learn to share, wait for turns, work in groups, and show respect for others. Head Start teachers have reported fewer discipline problems after several years of use.

Lillie, D., & Cryer, D. (1985). Handling behavior problems. St. Paul, MN: Toys 'N' Things Press.

This pamphlet is part of the Frank Porter Graham Center Family Day Care Education Series for parents and caregivers.

Long, J.D., & others (1985). Troubleshooters' guide to classroom discipline. Instructor, 95(2), 122-124.

The difference between teachers whose classes run smoothly and teachers whose classes are out of control is that the effective teachers speak carefully and take time to give examples and reasons. Checklists are provided to help teachers with classroom management.

Madsen, C.H., & Madsen, C.K. (1970). Teaching discipline: Behavioral principles towards a positive approach. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

If a preschool child has misbehaved, try telling a story about a very similar child. The "reflective stories technique" helps a child solve problems directly by indirectly giving advice and showing events in a new light that will generate new solutions to difficulties.

Marcus, R.F., & Leiserson, M.M. (1978). Encouraging helping behavior. Young Children, 33 (6), 24-34.

Practical suggestions are provided for encouraging helping behavior through classroom climate, structure, activities, and materials.

Maring, G.H., & others (1985). Five cooperative learning strategies for mainstreamed youngsters in content area classrooms. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 258 369)

Teaching strategies that are recommended to promote cooperative learning in mainstreamed classrooms are (1) the jigsaw; (2) list-group-label; (3) small-group structured overviews; (4) survey, predict, read, and revise; (5) translations.

Marion, M. (1981). Guidance of young children. St. Louis: C.V. Mosby.

Caregivers need to distinguish between immediate goals of confronting and dealing with discipline situations and long-term goals

to help children develop self-control and self-management skills.

Marshall, H.M. (1972). Positive discipline and classroom interaction. Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas.

Techniques are offered to help teachers identify the causes of misbehavior. Positive discipline techniques such as response shaping, involving children in setting rules, in class meetings, and in role playing are described.

Miller, C.S. (1984). Building self-control. Young Children, 40(1), 15-19.

Discipline problems can be expected when children are bored or rushed. Establish a sense of security through consistent, fair, clear limits; a prepared environment; and predictable rhythms to the day. Children need to be prepared for change in activity and to be allowed ample time for transitions in order to cooperate.

Minnesota State Department of Education (1985). "School effectiveness: Cooperative learning groups." (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 258 363)

Cooperative learning is a generic classroom technique that requires students to work and talk together about academic material while learning interpersonal skills.

Mischel, W., & Mischel, H.A. (1976). A cognitive social-learning approach to morality

and self-regulation. In T. Lickona (Ed.), Moral development and behavior. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Mitchell, G. (1982). A very practical guide to discipline with young children. New York: Telshare Publishing.

To help the preschool child develop self-discipline, four steps are suggested: (1) anticipate, (2) hesitate, (3) investigate, and (4) communicate. Practical suggestions are given for dealing with problems such as jealousy, dressing, and temper tantrums.

Mitchell, H., & Hoagland, V. (1980). CAMS social-emotional program. New York: Walker Educational Book Corp.

Forty skill objectives are provided in a spiral-bound noteboook. Through games, handicapped children are taught skills such as accepting limits and courteous social behavior.

O'Leary, D.K., & Schneider, M.R. (Authors). (1985). Catch 'em being good: Approaches to motivation and discipline. [Film]. Champaign, IL: Research Press.

This film demonstrates the effectiveness of positive attention, soft reprimands, response costs, peer support, daily report cards, and student self-evaluation and instruction.

Orlick, T. (1982). Winning through cooperation: Competitive alternatives. Washington, DC: Acropolis Books.

The spirit of excessive competition can cause harm to children. Cooperative sports and games provide five freedoms: (1) freedom from competition, (2) freedom to work out problems, (3) freedom from exclusion if less skilled, (4) freedom from hitting (aggression), and (5) freedom to be responsible for self.

Orlick, T. (1985). The second cooperative sports and games book. New York: Pantheon Press.

Noncompetitive, indoor and outdoor games encourage cooperation through noncompetitive play "without the hurt of losing." The child has a safe environment to look out for another's interests. Sharing gives the child a sense of pleasure, importance, and equality.

Parpal, M., & Maccoby, E.E. (1985). Maternal responsiveness and subsequent child compliance. Child Development, 56, 1326-1334.

Children who were in a free play situation were significantly less compliant than those in a responsive play condition, where the mother was given instructions to play with the child and to let the child know that she enjoyed the play.

Patterson, G.R. (1978). Living with children: New methods for parents and teachers. Champaign, IL: Research Press.

Social learning theory and the use of positive reinforcements are explained to help change children's misbehaviors.

Patterson, G.R., & Gullion, M.E. (1976). Living with children: New methods for parents and teachers (rev. ed.). Champaign, IL: Research Press.

When a child does not get adequate positive attention from an adult, the negative attention becomes positively reinforcing. Caregivers need to be alert to reinforce positive behaviors, through material reinforcers ("token economies") and verbal praise in order to shape higher rates of compliant behaviors.

Pirtle, S. (Ed.). (1984). Perspectives at work: Fourteen activities for building peacemaking skills. Grades one to six. Deerfield, MA: Traprock Peace Center.

Artwork, creative writing, and dramatizations are suggested for enhancing young children's ideas about peace, cooperation, and conflict resolution.

Popkin, M. (Author). (1985). Active parenting program [Videotapes]. Atlanta, GA: Active Parenting.

Program includes tapes of vignettes showing typical family situations. A leader's guide, handbook, and promotion materials are available for leading parenting groups aimed at teaching parents how to understand their child, instill courage, develop responsibility, win cooperation, and handle problems in a group.

Popkin, M. (Author). (1986). Self-esteem, discipline and parenting in the 80's [Videotape]. Atlanta, GA: Active Parenting.

Sixty-minute presentation to parents.

Reimer, C. (1967). Some words of encouragement. In V. Soltz (Ed.), Study group leaders manual. Chicago: Alfred Adler Institute.

The process of encouragement to enhance cooperation requires that an adult make positive statements to a child. Teachers find special ways and jobs to let children feel helpful and competent. Manual includes sample statements and phrases.

Rinn, R.C., & Markle, A. (1985). Positive parenting. Cambridge, MA: Research Media.

Parents learn methods of disciplining children in a positive manner by substituting desirable behavior for undesirable behavior. Topics covered include how to specify behavior to be changed, how to measure your child's behavior, how to identify motivators, and how to help your children change their behavior.

Rogers, F. (Author). (1984). Mister Rogers [Audio tape Cassettes]. Northbrook, IL: Hubbard Publishing.

Twelve minute cassettes by Mister Rogers help handicapped and normal children understand individual strengths and weaknesses. Selected titles are You Are Special, Feeling Happy, Feeling Sad, Feeling Mad, Wishing and Pretending, Helping and Loving, Trying Again, Growing, Growing Up without Sight, Wake Up

Sounds, Neighborhood Sounds, Going to Sleep, The Story of Planet Purple, Danny's Song, Francie, and Josephine, the Short-Necked Giraffe.

Rogers, F. (1984). Mister Rogers (Five books). Northbrook, IL: Hubbard Publishing.

The collection contains stories, activities, and things to think about for very young children of all ability levels. Selected titles are Danny's Song, Speedy Delivery, Who Am I?, A Piece of Red Paper, and Josephine, the Short-Necked Giraffe.

Ryan, P. (1983). Fostering discipline: Instructor's manual. Ypsilanti: Eastern Michigan University Institute for the Study of Children and Families.

This manual is designed to help foster families discipline positively and avoid punishments.

Samalin, N. (1987). Loving your child is not enough: positive discipline that works. New York: Bank Street College of Education.

Sapon-Shevin, M. (1980). Teaching cooperation in early childhood settings. In G. Cartledge & J.F. Milburn (Eds.), Teaching social skills to children: Innovative approaches. Elmsford, NY: Pergamon Press.

Cooperative classroom games are described. Children's literature is suggested as a way to teach alternatives to fighting or helplessness. For example, in the book "Two

Good Friends," Bear, an excellent cook but sloppy housekeeper, and Duck, who is neat, team up to cooperate so that both their lives are better.

Schaefer, C.E. (1982). How to influence children: A handbook of practical parenting skills (2nd ed.). New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

Child management skills are discussed, including permitting, ignoring, redirecting, modeling, rewarding, contracting, shaping, changing the home environment, praising, persuading, challenging, using natural consequences, prompting, setting limits, imposing penalties, using physical control, encouraging decision making, understanding noncompliance, unconditional love and affection, reflecting feelings, avoiding roadblocks, and developing family spirit.

Schaefer, C.E., & Millman, H.L. (1981). How to help children with common problems. New York: Harper & Row.

Schulman, M., & Mekler, E. (1985). Bringing up a moral child. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

This is a research-based "how-to" manual with good advice and scenarios for parents to play out with their children so that they can learn empathy, kindness, and responsibility.

Sheppard, W.C., Shank, S.B., & Wilson, D. (1972). How to be a good teacher: Training socialization behavior in young children. Columbus, OH: Merrill.

Shure, M.B., & Spivak, G. (1979). Problem solving techniques in child rearing. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

An interpersonal cognitive problem-solving program was developed to help children cope better with social frustrations and conflicts. The techniques that worked best were ability to foresee the consequences of an action and the ability to generate alternative ways to handle conflict. Sequential lesson plans are available.

Silberman, L., & Wheelan, A. (1980). How to discipline without feeling guilty. New York: Hawthorne Books.

Using practical examples, the authors show how adults can be both firm and caring with children of any age.

Slavin, R., Sharon, S., Kagan, S., Hertz-Lazarowitz, R., Webb, C., & Schmuck, R. (1985). Learning to cooperate, cooperating to learn. New York: Plenum.

Sloan, H.N. (1985). Five practical behavior guides. Champaign, IL: Research Press.

Step-by-step behavioral activities are provided to change children's most troublesome noncooperative habits.

Smith, C. (1982). Promoting the social development of young children: Strategies and activities. Palo Alto, CA: Mayfield.

Games and specific group activities are provided to enhance positive classroom behaviors.

Smith, D.D. (1984). Effective discipline. Austin, TX: Pro-Ed Books.

Teachers are taught how to prevent discipline problems that occur when children are bored with too easy tasks or frustrated with very difficult work. Techniques are to decrease problem behaviors are suggested, including specific rewards, contingent instructions, fines, class-determined rule setting, restitution and positive practice overcorrection, time out, and the Premack Principle.

Snyder, R. (1980). Three differing systems of discipline and their impact on conscience and culture. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 262 909)

Three basic approaches to discipline are discussed: obedience-oriented versus punitive, indulgent-permissive, and person-enabling (within an environment that is safe, fair, and constructively caring). Each approach creates a different type of culture and conscience.

Sondheimer, I. (1985). The boy who could make his mother stop yelling. Fayettville, NY: Rainbow Press.

This is a story for a parent to read to a child. It describes a little boy whose mother yells at him for thoughtless acts. The little boy finally thinks of a solution: if his mama stops using her "lion" voice, he will try to

remember all the household rules about caring for toys and being quiet while the baby sleeps.

Stone, J.G. (1978). A guide to discipline (rev. ed.). Washington, DC: National Association for the Education of Young Children.

Clear examples are given in this brochure to help prevent discipline problems and to help teachers discipline effectively when a child bites, hits, or cries.

Tamashiro, R.T., & Markson, M.B. (1985). Parent's view of discipline in the preschool and the home. Educational Resources Information Center, 17(3).

This study of 143 parents of children ages 3 to 5 classifies discipline styles according to three major theoretical schools: the interventionist approach, the noninterventionist approach, and the interactionist approach. While teachers and parents view classroom discipline as a major problem, there is little agreement as to what is the "best approach."

Tanner, L.N. (1978). Classroom discipline for effective teaching and learning. San Francisco: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Major research findings and theories about moral and social-personal development are related to classroom practices. Specific discipline suggestions are given for common classroom situations.

Verble, M. (1985). How to encourage self-discipline. Learning, 14(1), 40-42.

Punishment leaves students passive. A technique is suggested in which students name behaviors, choose alternative solutions, and plan and take relevant consequences. This strategy involves students in their own discipline and encourages self-discipline.

Walsh, K., & Cowels, M. (1982). Developmental discipline. Alabama: Religious Education Press.

Warren, R.M. (1977). Caring: Supporting children's growth. Washington, DC: National Association for the Education of Young Children.

Wayson, W.W., DeVass, G.G., Kaeser, S.C., Lasley, J., & Pimmell, G.S. (1983). Handbook for developing schools with good discipline. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa.

A Discipline Content Inventory provides a working guide for identifying discipline problems in schools and establishing goals to solve those problems. Schools should use techniques such as continual group brainstorming to help people learn skills necessary for reinforcing and sustaining change by parents, school staff, and students.

Webster-Stratton, C. (Author). (1985). Effective limit setting. Part I. How to set limits [30 minute videotape]. Carrboro, NC: Health Sciences Consortium.

Thirty-four vignettes of adults and children in real-life situations cover these major concepts: identification of important household rules, ways to give more effective commands; provision of positive alternatives; use of helpful reminders and warnings; use of a "when-then" command; use of problem-solving approaches with children.

Webster-Stratton, C. (Author). (1985). Effective limit setting. Part II. Helping children learn to accept limits. [27-minute videotape]. Carrboro, NC: Health Sciences Consortium.

This program emphasizes the importance of following through with commands in a consistent manner. Nineteen vignettes present the concepts of dealing with children who test limits; understanding when to divert and distract children; avoiding arguments and "why" games; ignoring inappropriate responses; following through effectively with commands.

Webster-Stratton, C. (Author). (1985). Effective limit setting: Part III. Dealing with noncompliance [13-minute videotape]. Carrboro, NC: Health Sciences Consortium.

Nine vignettes illustrate understanding how to implement time-out for noncompliance and how to explain it to children; avoiding power struggles; ignoring child's inappropriate responses; following through with a child who refuses to go or to stay in time out, and avoiding common mistakes in use of time out.

Wolfgang, C. (1977). Helping aggressive and passive preschoolers through play. Columbus, OH: Merrill.

The use of four types of play to encourage productive behavior is suggested: (1) sensorimotor, (2) sociodramatic (symbolic), (3) construction, and (4) games with rules. Play materials vary from fluid to structured. Teachers must be careful to prevent emotional flooding and loss of impulse control in aggressive preschoolers who need direction and experience with structured materials.

Wolfgang, C., & Brudenell, G. (1983). Discipline: Different strokes for different folks. Early Child Development and Care, 11, 285-296.

The three major discipline models are (1) relationship-listening, (2) confronting-contracting, and (3) rules, rewards, and punishment. Techniques are illustrated for each model.

Wolfgang, C., & Glickman, C.D. (1980). Solving discipline problems. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Techniques from a behavior modification model, from Berne's transactional model, from Dreikur's social discipline model, and from Glasser's reality model are all introduced to help a caregiver choose ways to handle unacceptable and noncooperative behaviors. The uses of modeling, isolation, saturation techniques, directive statements, physical intervention, and contingency contracting are explained.

Wood, P., & Schwartz, B. (1977). How to get your child to do what you want them to do. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Wyckoff, J., & Vrell, B. (1984). Discipline without shouting or spanking. New York: Simon & Schuster.

This handy reference for parents and teachers of 1- to 5-year-olds gives practical advice on preventing misbehavior problems from occurring and for handling problems when they do occur.

THE ERIC SYSTEM AND ERIC/EECE

ERIC is a national information system on education funded by the Office of Educational Research and Improvement of the United States Department of Education. Each month, abstracts and bibliographic information for more than 1,100 documents and 1,500 journal articles on all phases of education are entered into the ERIC database by the 16 clearinghouses in the ERIC system.

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ERIC Ready Reference #8
Revised March 1986

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National Center for Research in Vocational Education
1960 Kenny Road
Columbus, Ohio 43210
Telephone: (614) 486-3655; (800) 848-4815

All levels and settings of adult and continuing, career, and vocational/technical education. Adult education, from basic literacy training through professional skill upgrading. Career education, including career awareness, career decisionmaking, career development, career change, and experience-based education. Vocational and technical education, including new subprofessional fields, industrial arts, corrections education, employment and training programs, youth employment, work experience programs, education/business partnerships, entrepreneurship, adult retraining, and vocational rehabilitation for the handicapped.

ERIC Clearinghouse on *Counseling and Personnel Services* (CG)
University of Michigan
School of Education, Room 2108
610 East University Street
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48109
Telephone: (313) 764-9492

Preparation, practice, and supervision of counselors at all educational levels and in all settings; theoretical development of counseling and guidance; personnel procedures such as testing and interviewing and the analysis and dissemination of the resultant information; group work and case work; nature of pupil, student, and adult characteristics; personnel workers and their relation to career planning, family consultations, and student orientation activities.

ERIC Clearinghouse on *Educational Management* (EA)
University of Oregon
1787 Agate Street
Eugene, Oregon 97403
Telephone: (503) 686-5043

The leadership, management, and structure of public and private educational organizations; practice and theory of administration, preservice and inservice preparation of administrators; tasks and processes of administration; methods and varieties of organization and organizational change; and the social context of educational organizations.

Sites, buildings, and equipment for education; planning, financing, constructing, renovating, equipping, maintaining, operating, insuring, utilizing, and evaluating educational facilities.

ERIC Clearinghouse on *Elementary and Early Childhood Education* (PS)
University of Illinois
College of Education
805 W. Pennsylvania Avenue
Urbana, Illinois 61801
Telephone: (217) 333-1386

The physical, cognitive, social, educational, and cultural development of children from birth through early adolescence; prenatal factors; parental behavior factors; learning theory research and practice related to the development of young children; including the preparation of teachers for the educational level; educational programs and community services for children; and theoretical and philosophical issues pertaining to children's development and education.

ERIC Clearinghouse on *Handicapped and Gifted Children* (EC)
Council for Exceptional Children
1920 Association Drive
Reston, Virginia 22091
Telephone: (703) 620-3660

All aspects of the education and development of the handicapped and gifted, including prevention, identification and assessment, intervention, and enrichment, both in special settings and within the mainstream.

ERIC Clearinghouse on *Higher Education* (HE)
George Washington University
One Dupont Circle, N.W., Suite 630
Washington, D.C. 20036
Telephone: (202) 296-2597

Topics relating to college and university conditions, problems, programs, and students. Curricular and instructional programs, and institutional research at the college or university level. Federal programs, professional education (medicine, law, etc.), professional continuing education, collegiate computer-assisted learning and management, graduate education, university extension programs, teaching-learning, legal issues and legislation, planning, governance, finance, evaluation, intermediate/international arrangements, management of institutions of higher education, and business or industry educational programs leading to a degree.

ERIC Clearinghouse on *Information Resources* (IR)
Syracuse University
School of Education
Huntington Hall, Room 030
150 Marshall Street
Syracuse, New York 13210
Telephone: (315) 423-3640

Educational technology and library and information science at all levels. Instructional design, development, and evaluation are the emphases within educational technology, along with the media of educational communication: computers and microcomputers, telecommunications (cable, broadcast, satellite), audio and video recordings, film and other audiovisual materials, as they pertain to teaching and learning. Within library and information science the focus is on the operation and management of information services for education-related organizations. All aspects of information technology related to education are considered within the scope.

ERIC Clearinghouse for *Junior Colleges* (JC)
University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA)
Mathematical Sciences Building, Room 8118
405 Hilgard Avenue
Los Angeles, California 90024
Telephone: (213) 825-3931

Development, administration, and evaluation of two-year public and private community and junior colleges, technical institutes, and two-year branch university campuses. Two-year college students, faculty, staff, curricula, programs, support services, libraries, and community services. Linkages between two-year colleges and business/industrial organizations. Articulation of two-year colleges with secondary and four-year postsecondary institutions.

ERIC Clearinghouse on *Languages and Linguistics* (FL)
Center for Applied Linguistics
1118 22nd Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20037
Telephone: (202) 429-9551

Languages and language sciences, theoretical and applied linguistics; all areas of foreign language, second language, and linguistics instruction, pedagogy, or methodology; psycholinguistics and the psychology of language learning; cultural and intercultural context of languages; application of linguistics in language teaching; bilingualism and bilingual education; sociolinguistics; study abroad and international exchanges; teacher training and qualifications specific to the teaching of foreign languages and second languages; commonly and uncommonly taught languages, including English as a second language; related curriculum developments and problems.

ERIC Clearinghouse on *Reading and Communication Skills* (CS)
National Council of Teachers of English
1111 Kenyon Road
Urbana, Illinois 61801
Telephone: (217) 328-3870

Reading, English, and communication skills (verbal and nonverbal), preschool through college; educational research and instruction development in reading, writing, speaking, and listening; identification, diagnosis, and remediation of reading problems; speech communication (including forensics); mass communication; interpersonal and small group interaction, interpretation, rhetorical and communication theory; speech sciences, and theater. Preparation of instructional staff and related personnel in these areas.

All aspects of reading behavior with emphasis on physiology, psychology, sociology, and teaching; instructional materials, curricula, tests/measurement, and methodology at all levels of reading; the role of librarians and other agencies in fostering and guiding reading; diagnostics and remedial reading services in schools and clinical settings. Preparation of reading teachers and specialists.

ERIC Clearinghouse on *Rural Education and Small Schools* (RC)
New Mexico State University
Computer Center (Room 218), Stewart Street
Box 3AP
Las Cruces, New Mexico 88003
Telephone: (505) 646-2623

Economic, cultural, social, or other factors related to educational programs and practices for rural residents; American Indians/Alaska Natives, Mexican Americans, and migrants; educational practices and programs in all small schools; outdoor education.

ERIC Clearinghouse for *Science, Mathematics, and Environmental Education* (SE)
Ohio State University
1200 Chambers Road, Room 310
Columbus, Ohio 43212
Telephone: (614) 422-6717

Science, mathematics, and environmental education at all levels, and within these three broad subject areas, the following topics: development of curriculum and instructional materials; teachers and teacher education; learning theory/outcomes (including the impact of parameters such as interest level, intelligence, values, and concept development upon learning in these fields); educational programs; research and evaluative studies; media applications; computer applications.

ERIC Clearinghouse for *Social Studies/Social Science Education* (SO)
Indiana University
Social Studies Development Center
2805 East 10th Street
Bloomington, Indiana 47405
Telephone: (812) 335-3838

All levels of social studies and social science education; content of the social science disciplines, applications of theory and research to social science education; contributions of social science disciplines (anthropology, economics, geography, history, sociology, social psychology, political science); education as a social science; comparative education (K-12); content and curriculum materials on "social" topics such as law-related education, ethnic studies, bias and discrimination, aging, adoption, women's equity, and sex education.

ERIC Clearinghouse on *Teacher Education* (SP)
American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education
One Dupont Circle, N.W., Suite 610
Washington, D.C. 20036
Telephone: (202) 293-2450

School personnel at all levels; teacher selection and training, preservice and inservice preparation, and retirement; the theory, philosophy, and practice of teaching; curricula and general education not specifically covered by other clearinghouses; all aspects of physical education, health education, and recreation education.

ERIC Clearinghouse on *Tests, Measurement, and Evaluation* (TM)
Educational Testing Service
Rosedale Road
Princeton, New Jersey 08541
Telephone: (609) 734-5176

Tests and other measurement devices; methodology of measurement and evaluation; application of tests, measurement, or evaluation in educational projects or programs; research design and methodology in the area of testing and measurement/evaluation; learning theory in general.

ERIC Clearinghouse on *Urban Education* (UD)
Teachers College, Columbia University
Institute for Urban and Minority Education
Box 40
525 W. 120th Street
New York, New York 10027
Telephone: (212) 678-3433

Programs and practices in public, parochial, and private schools in urban areas and the education of particular racial/ethnic minority children and youth in various settings — local, national, and international; the theory and practice of educational equity; urban and minority experiences; and urban and minority social institutions and services.

Educational Resources Information Center
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Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI)
Washington, D.C. 20208
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